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ABSTRACT

Together, the two papers in this report describe past, present, and future trends on the use of media, particularly in the English classroom. The first paper makes several projections about the use of media as a result of the "back to basics" movement. It defines "basic" education, explains the philosophical background of the movement, and offers five objections to it. The paper concludes with a discussion of the effects this movement will have on school media programs. The second paper is a statistical study describing what a selected group of Indiana schools was doing with media before the "back to basics" movement began. (FI)

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TWO PAPERS: BASICS AND MEDIA

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INTRODUCTION

This introduction is made up of two parts. The first part makes several projections about the use of media as a result of the Back to Basics Movement. The second part is a statistical study that describes what a selected group of Indiana schools was doing with media before the Back to Basics syndrome got moving. Together, both parts give past, present, and future trends on the use of media in the classroom. Together, they represent a sharp contrast of attitudes towards media within the decade.

UPDATE ON TRENDS: BACK TO BASICS AND THE USE OF MEDIA

Critics such as John Leonard, who sometimes uses the pseudonym "Cyclops" when writing TV reviews for the New York Times, and syndicated columnist Max Rafferty would argue that the proliferation of media innovations, phase elective programs, open classrooms, tube-watching, and a host of other things have contributed to the decline of educational standards in the United States.[1] These critics and many like them favor a pre-Darwinian form of fundamentalism that would lead the students back to Silas Marner, The McGuffey Reader, and no monkeying around.

But one doesn't have to be a fundamentalist to decry some of the indiscriminate practices with media in the classrooms. Letting the kids watch the World Series on TV or making them watch skimpy filmstrips which purport to teach punctuation, grammar, or something important about poetry is an abuse of valuable learning time. In nearly all disciplines, I have heard of teachers using films as fillers and then not knowing what to do with a good film once they showed it to the class. Glenn Ford's act of showing cartoons to the high school students in "Blackboard Jungle" became a bad model for motivating kids to learn.

It's true: there are abusers of educational media in the classrooms. But there are many who, in addition to stressing the basics, have used media to teach in exceptionally creative ways. Consider the practices espoused by Ken Donelson of Arizona State University[2] or Michael Flannigan of Indiana University.[3] Consider what Eliot Wigginton has had his classes do in terms of writing about and filming

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the West Virginia people and their customs.[4] And, if you're a watcher of "The Today Show," you may have seen what Bill Fraser of Lafayette, Indiana had his students doing with TV. These four teachers and many others like them know how to use media in discriminate ways. They also understand a key advantage to working with media: students must render a commitment to the subject to win the respect of their audience.

In a course called "Twentieth Century American Culture," designed by Joe Krause, a history teacher, Dr. Kenneth Bush, a science coordinator, Miriam Balf, a humanities consultant, and myself, I saw students giving their own slide-tape presentations on WPA projects in the community, the Ash Can School of Art, and the evolution of medicine in the twentieth century. I saw students committed to producing their own films and acting out TV scenes related to woman suffrage, spoofs on the influence of Freud, and serious demonstrations and lectures on the history of synthesized music in America, propaganda art, the background for Sinclair's The Jungle, and an analysis of Nixon's decisions in Watergate. Students explored important developments within their own century and through a variety of media shared their findings with the class. Media projects in the class demanded that students conduct research on given topics, write scripts that could be used by others, and control a selected medium to impart information in a clear and interesting way.

Of course, the student media projects were just one important aspect of the whole course. Students also analyzed and discussed art slides, films such as "Inherit the Wind," "Grapes of Wrath," and "The Best Years of Our Lives," and filmstrips on "The Decision to Drop the Bomb" and "Redesigning Man," the latter filmstrip being used to motivate students in a discussion on the implications of recombinant DNA research.[5] Students in this class also read six books and wrote four full-length essays.

My point is this: Critics who broadly categorize media innovations as frills which cultivate idiots for future global villages see only through tunnels they are paid to see through. Teachers can still stress the basics and use media to heighten learning in the classroom.

In a 1975 random survey of 48 Indiana schools, I found good evidence to suggest that some schools were introducing students to skills needed in becoming refined analyzers and users of media. Nearly all the schools reported completing a very high percent of given media objectives. For example, 98% of the schools said they did make it a point to have their students distinguish between objective and subjective reporting; 96% of the schools analyzed persuasion techniques in editorials; 96% interpreted advertisements or commercials in terms of audience targets and needs; 77% dealt with understanding the role of advertisers as consumers of media; 85% identified forms of censorship; 73% dealt with understanding the role of the FCC; 54% dealt with understanding the developments in the history of film. These objectives are only seven of the twenty sample objectives administered in the survey. The average amount of time devoted to media analysis and media composition in the 48 schools was close to 20% of the classroom time.[6]

During the first half of this decade, the use of media in education was the most widespread it has ever been; but within the last two years, financial cutbacks, declining enrollments, and a general disenchantment with public education have brought innovations with educational media to a near standstill. Right now, the public wants the schools to focus on "good, old-fashioned learning of the basics." But what does that mean? The word "basic" is relative in meaning: it can mean many things to different people. Here are a few of the meanings that Ben

Brodinsky identified in the March 1977 issue of Phi Delta Kappan,[7]

a. Emphasis on reading, writing and arithmetic in elementary schools.

b. In the secondary grades, most of the day is to be devoted to English, science, math, and history, taught from "clean" textbooks, free of notions that violate traditional family and national values.

c. At all levels, the teacher is to take a dominant role with "no-nonsense about pupil-directed activities."

d. Methodology is to include drill, recitation, daily homework, and frequent testing.

e. Discipline is to be strict with corporal punishment an accepted method of control. Dress codes should regulate student apparel and hair styles.

f. Eliminate the frills.

g. Eliminate electives and increase the number of required courses.

h. Ban innovations (a plague on them!). New math, new science, linguistics, instruction by electronic gadgets, emphasis on concepts instead of facts--all must go.

As anyone might guess, the "Back to Basics" theme is nothing new. It has its roots in the Essentialist Committee for the Advancement of American Education, founded in the early 1930's. The people who called themselves "the essentialists" stood for the reinstatement of subject matter content at the center of the curriculum. Some of their basic principles which proponents of the "Back to Basics" Movement also endorse are these:

1. Parents and educators should oppose progressivism and freedom for children in the schools. Learning should be recognized as hard work and often unwilling application of self discipline.

2. The teacher must be the figure of authority and serve as mediator between the child's world and the adult world.

3. The major task of the student is to absorb prescribed subject matter.

One fundamental difference between Essentialism in the 1930's and the Basics Movement in the 1970's, however, is this: the Essentialists believed that the purpose of education was to inculcate knowledge about the whole of life, to study essential concepts that would help one to understand his social heritage and his culture and to prepare him for the future. Most proponents of the "Back to Basics" are far more utilitarian. They are more concerned with isolated skill development in the mechanics of language and math computation than they are concerned about concepts. The Essentialist Committee for the Advancement of American Education was responding to the spread of John Dewey's philosophy in the schools.[8] The proponents of the "Back to Basics" Movement are responding to a mixed bag of stimulators:

1. There are some who have been influenced by the declining SAT scores and the press and the poor performances by their own children. They honestly believe that the basics such as learning multiplication tables, spelling,

capitalization, usage, formal grammar, handwriting, punctuation, sentence structure, vocabulary, and reading have not been taught adequately in recent years, and they want their children to have the best opportunities to develop these skills.

2. There are some who have been influenced by the profit motive. People like Max Rafferty and Herman Andres, vice president of a chemical company and former president of an Indiana taxpayers committee, are front men for business sectors that want to control the spending of tax money for education. They and other organizations opposed to tax dollars being spent for education look at the Back to Basics Movement as a means for curtailing costs.[9] One group of concerned taxpayers of Delphi, Indiana prepared a statement of twelve demands to the school board.[10] The first demand read as follows:

> --To stop receiving Federal monies because they automatically bring federal controls which take away rights of local communities to determine its own educational programs and which open the way for all the experimental and unproven psycho-social programs.

Some publishers of standardized tests are jumping on the "Basics" bandwagon, too. Many are pressuring state legislators to initiate mandatory laws for public schools to use proficiency tests. The test-makers stand to make millions of dollars by selling their computer bank information to the schools. Also, a number of publishers have updated texts printed in the 1930's and 1940's in an attempt to meet the demands of teachers and the public who have been primed to look for materials used in "the good old-fashioned days."

3. There are some who are driven by communal guilt to get control of the environment for their children. Watergate, student unrest in the late '60's, and drug trafficking are manifestations of parents having failed to control the environment for their children. Demanding control of the curriculum through concerned parent groups, censorship committees, and letters to the superintendent asking for more "bonehead" English, old math, or biology texts that advocate the creation theory are forms of getting control of the environment for their children's social, moral, and economic welfare.

a d A document distributed by Indiana State Senator Joan Gubbins clearly illustrates an attempt on the part of parents and some politicians to seek control of the environment for their children.[11] The excerpt below is only a part of a larger statement on the Equal Rights Amendment.

> The right of parents to insist that the schools:
>
> a) permit voluntary prayer,
>
> b) teach the "fourth R" (right and wrong) according to the precepts of the Ten Commandments,
>
> c) use textbooks that do not offend the religious and moral values of the parents,

d) use textbooks that honor the family, monogamous marriage, woman's role as wife and mother, and man's role as provider and protector,

e) teach basic educational skills such as reading and arithmetic before time and money are spent on frills,

f) permit children to attend school in their own neighborhood,

g) separate the sexes for sex education...

Philosophically, I would have to say that, in part, I am an essentialist. I believe that learning should be recognized as hard work and often unwilling application of self discipline. I believe that the teacher must be recognized as the figure of authority in the classroom and must often serve as a mediator between the child's world and the adult world. I believe that a major task of the student is to absorb prescribed subject matter, but that the prescribed subject matter, in many cases, can be a system for approaching a solution to a problem or the conceptualization of a network of cause-effect relationships. I also believe teachers must guide students in making decisions about their own educational goals and objectives. Strong individualism is not nourished by total prescription; it's nourished by honest criticism, encouragement, and a demonstration of trust in the integrity of the individual.

Consequently, I, as a teacher, am sympathetic with parents who want their children to have a solid foundation in basic skills; but I am very skeptical of the narrow positions held by the utilitarians and the fundamentalists in the Back to Basics Movement. Here are some of the reasons for my skepticism.

1. The Back to Basics Movement will eliminate many needed courses or units in the schools. The "needed" courses will be construed as anything that can help students perform well on standardized tests. Courses on creative dramatics, speech, poetry, imaginative literature, creative writing, and media analysis will be pushed aside for courses such as "Getting Ready for the SAT." In some cases, schools will lose their elective programs because "they do not deal sufficiently with the basics." The notion of the basics being relative to interests, maturity level, and ability level will not be operative.

2. The Back to Basics Movement will restrict choices of materials and the use of media equipment in the schools. The surge of censorship committees, concerned parents' groups, and the involvement of parents on text adoption committees will create a strong conservatism in the selection of books. It will be necessary for many departments of English to spend hours defending what they teach.

   It is a fact that right now several of the nation's largest textbook publishers are revising the English texts which they sold in the 1940's and 1950's. By the fall of 1977, many of these texts will be on the market, giving the schools little of anything new to choose from. The accent, of course, will be on mechanical and over-simplified approaches to writing instruction and grammar. Even though research has shown no relationship between formal grammar instruction and writing ability, parents and teachers will drift back to the myth that there is a strong relationship between the two areas and will select textbooks accordingly.[12]

It is a fact that the sale of old McGuffey Readers, which were first printed in 1836 and which stress moral values and, above all, politeness and civility, are on the upswing. In 1975, over 10,000 copies of the readers were sold. The books are still being used in several states and the trend is growing.[13]

It is a fact that schools will continue to cut their spending on new materials and equipment; however, they will scrape up funds for elaborate testing programs that will allow educators to determine a student's level of competency in science, math, English, and history.

3. The Back to Basics Movement will attempt to regiment students as though they were products on an assembly line. Levels of performance on tests, in dress, and in classroom discipline will be key "predictors" of success. Students will be manipulated into pressure-cookers and told to resign themselves to the fact that people need to be molded to make our society more orderly and beneficial to all. Eventually, students will become aware that they really don't have a voice in shaping their own environment and the curriculum.

4. The Back to Basics Movement will limit the boundaries of learning by placing more emphasis on drill than on reasoning. Lessons in the classroom will not focus on the development of skills needed to establish cause-effect relationships or the skills needed to speculate intelligently; instead, the focus will be on memorization of facts and rules. Children will strive to become champions of worksheet activities.

5. The Back to Basics Movement will discourage inventive teachers. The July 4, 1977 issue of Newsweek implies that tact in an article entitled "Basic is Better," a brief commentary on a USOE study comparing disadvantaged third graders enrolled in open classrooms and those enrolled in highly formal programs. The article implied a definite preference for the highly formal programs, those leaving little to the imagination of the teacher, programs in which "teachers read word for word, from lesson outlines, and children learn by chanting rote responses."[14]

I object to the Back to Basics Movement because of its artificiality. It implies a genuine pedagogical aim, when for many the aim is economic or political. It implies an abdication of basic instruction in this past decade, when from my own observations and contacts, I would say that the quality of instruction is no worse than it has ever been. It implies that canned programs and teaching toward the test offer the best prescription in learning, when there is no honest evidence to support such an implication. It implies a business ethic that merely meets a utilitarian need, when kids also need opportunities to establish broad concepts about their culture and their own powers of creativity. It implies media are frills and that change is bad.

One favorable outcome in the Back to Basics Movement might be that schools which currently employ a heavy stress on media will be forced to defend their programs in terms of identifying for the public what the basic communication skills are and how the media programs provide opportunities for communication skill development. If schools can not provide such a rationale, they must be prepared to alter their programs to meet the communication needs of their students.

All media might be looked at as tools for interpreting and sharing the worlds we live in. Kids need to be aware of the ways in which these tools are being used: how the cropping of a picture for a news article changes the meaning of the photographed event, how the selection of news items on TV makes a statement about the network's point of view, how the language a TV commentator uses can imply a slant in the news coverage, how an angle of a film shot or the sequence of shots adds a meaning to the film event, how the language of a poem is comprised of metaphor, sound, punctuation, capitalization, rhyme, alliteration, and space--all of which add to the meaning of the poem. Kids need to be able to analyze magazine articles carefully enough to formulate accurate precis of what they have read; they also need to be critical readers and viewers, always asking questions about the meanings, the intent, and the convincingness of what they are analyzing.

Schools must provide instruction for students to become highly critical as readers and viewers. As we approach the end of the second millennium, technology will be providing us with many sophisticated tools for information dissemination. If a serious gap arises between the controllers of media and an uninformed, non-critical public, the masses will be most vulnerable to manipulation, moreso than they are at the present. Media analysis does have an important place in the schools right now. Silas Marner and McGuffey's Reader can't do it all.

Students also need to develop compositions, using different media and deliberately freezing in print or on tape or on film those feelings, observations and beliefs as tests of persuasion. The object of these tests is to win the respect of the audience by convincing both the audience and one's self that what one sees and feels and believes is real.

Probably the most important factor in winning that respect for the student's work is the student's sense of willingness to share something. If a student can demonstrate a sense of involvement by supplying the audience with adequate and relevant information and by leading the audience to discoveries, the audience must recognize the student's sense of commitment. Skill in writing clearly, accurately, and correctly certainly adds to that sense of commitment. Likewise, skill in developing auditory and visual productions adds to the sense of commitment in sharing a media production. If a work renders a strong commitment, we can say that it, in a positive way, represents the integrity of the individual searching for what is real. And that should be the purpose of public education in general: to discover the integrity of self and of others, not merely to be "the better performer on standardized tests." The latter is only, and should always remain, secondary.

NOTES

[1]John Leonard. "Progress Is When a Poet Replaces a Visual Aid," New York Times (June 1, 1975).

Max Rafferty. "How to Get More School Money," Indianapolis Star (July 3, 1977).

[2]Kenneth L. Donelson (ed.). Media and the Teaching of English. Arizona English Bulletin 12 (February 1970).

[3]Michael C. Flannigan and Robert S. Boone. Using Media in the Language Arts. Itasca, Illinois: F. P. Peacock. 1977.

[4]Eliot Wigginton. The Foxfire Book. Garden City, New York: Anchor Press. 1971.

[5]Redesigning Man: Science and Human Values (filmstrips series) Harper & Row. 1977.

[6]Bernarr Folta. "A Report on the Use of Media in Secondary Schools in Indiana." Indiana Council of Teachers of English. 1977.

[7]Ben Brodinsky. "Back to the Basics: The Movement and Its Meaning," Phi Delta Kappan, p. 522-7 (March 1977).

[8]George Kneller (ed.). "Essentialism," Foundations of Education. New York: John Wiley & Sons. 1967; p. 108-112.

[9]Max Rafferty. "How to Get More School Money," Indianapolis Star (July 3, 1977).

Herman Andres was very successful in banning together business executives and professional people in high income brackets to fight tax dollars being spent for education in Indiana during the early 1970's.

[10]This statement was presented to the Delphi School Board on November 19, 1974.

[11]Senator Joan Gubbins distributed this statement to a meeting of concerned citizens in Muncie, Indiana.

[12]Common Sense and Testing in English. Report of the Task Force on Measurement and Evaluation in the Study of English. Urbana, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE), 1975.

Paul B. Diederich. Measuring Growth in English. Urbana, Illinois: NCTE, 1974.

J. Stephen Sherwin. Four Problems in Teaching English: A Critique of Research. Urbana, Illinois: NCTE, 1968.

[13]"McGuffey's Not Extinct Yet," Lafayette Journal & Courier (January 5, 1977).

[14]"Basic Is Better," Newsweek. p. 76 (July 4, 1977).

A REPORT ON THE USE OF MEDIA IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN INDIANA

In 1974, when I read the preliminary English curriculum report issued by the Indiana Department of Public Instruction (DPI), I was surprised to find that only six per cent of the curriculum was devoted to media studies. I was also surprised to discover that the investigators found no difference between elective programs and traditional programs when it came to the amount of time spent on media studies. I wanted to find out if, through another instrument, I could detect some overlapping of media instruction that was not accounted for in the DPI report. In no way was my investigation intended to discredit the aims of the DPI report. My investigation focused on media. The DPI report gave a broad picture of curricula stresses; it did not have as its purpose an intensive study of any one aspect of the language arts.

In my investigation, I was looking for answers to two questions. Would my findings support the DPI findings on the percentage of time given given to media? What differences, if any, would I find between schools with elective programs and schools with traditional programs?

SAMPLING

I received a list of 277 schools which were identified as secondary schools used in the DPI survey. On this list, 214 schools were clearly identified as high schools. By a split-half method of random sampling, 107 schools were chosen for the follow-up study.

Each school was sent a cover letter, a two page survey data sheet, and a stamped envelope. Respondents were asked to return their data sheets in three weeks. Forty-eight schools (45 per cent) returned the surveys.

STATISTICAL DESIGN

To compare the differences between the amounts of time devoted to media studies in programs with five or fewer electives and programs with more than five electives, a t test was used in the comparison of mean scores. Since two outliners could be identified in the posted data, the Winsorized t statistic was used. The student's t test was used in analyzing the mean scores of the two groups in responding to the given set of objectives in media analysis.

FINDINGS

The results of Items 2-9 on the first page of the survey are listed below.

2. Enrollments: 200-1000 - 24 schools
   1001-2000 - 18 schools
   2000 + - 4 schools
   ? - 2 schools
   n = 48
3. Average Number of Elective Courses in All Programs: 22.70.
4. Average Number of Non-elective Courses: 3.79.
5. Average Number of Media Analysis Courses: 2.58.
6. Average Number of Elective and Non-elective Courses in which one unit on media was taught: 6.11.

7. Average Amount of Time Given to Media Analysis: 11.93
8. Average Number of Media Composition Courses: 2.88.
9. Average Amount of Time Given to Media Composition in All Programs: 12.25.

In Item 3, the average number of elective courses in all programs could be misleading, due to a considerable variation in scores. The median score of 13 was probably a better representation of "the average" in this case.

Items 5 and 8 indicated the average number of media courses which were predominantly media analysis or media composition courses. Media analysis courses were described in terms of courses such as mass media, history of film, journalism, and propaganda. Media composition courses were described in terms of courses such as photo-journalism, film production, broadcast journalism, creative dramatics, and student newspapers. Close to six per cent of the courses offered in the schools surveyed were predominantly media courses. This corresponded closely to the findings in the DPI report.

However, Items 7 and 9, combined, indicated that close to 24 per cent of the time in language arts programs was devoted to studies in media. Item 6, which takes into account some of the overlapping of media studies in courses other than those cited as "predominantly media courses," began to offer some explanation for the discrepancy between the DPI report and this follow-up study. The average number of elective and non-elective courses in which at least one unit about media was taught was 6.11. The unit score of 6.11 implied a considerable amount of integration of media studies with other English courses, including non-elective courses.

In comparing language arts programs with fewer than five electives to language arts program with more than five electives, I combined each school's responses to Items 7 and 9 and ran a t test based on the difference between the means. Since two outliers were identified in the listing of combined scores, a Winsorized t statistic was used. (See Table 1. It should be noted that the n's for each group did not total 48. The reason for this difference was that not every respondent answered Items 7 and 9. If a respondent failed to answer 7 and/or 9, that respondent's survey could not be used in this comparison.)

The data in TABLE 1 (see page 9) clearly indicated a significant difference between the two samples. The computation of the confidence interval for the More-Than-Five-Electives Group yielded this statistic:

$$g\text{-}1 \text{ interval} = C(15.94 \leq X \leq 36.30) = .99.$$

If the mean of the Five-or-Fewer-Electives Group fell somewhere between 15.94 and 36.30, one could assume that both means came from the same population. However, the rejection of the Five-or-Fewer-Electives Group's mean score clearly indicated the existence of two populations. This difference was not observed in the DPI report.

TABLE 2 (See page 10) was based on responses from all the schools surveyed in the follow-up study. The mean scores represented the average number of mass media analysis objectives checked by the respondents in each group. (See final page for objectives and total response.)

TABLE 2 showed the difference between the mean scores was statistically significant at the $< .025$ level. Language arts programs having more than five electives tended to cover (slightly) more of the given media analysis objectives than those covered by programs with five or fewer electives. The

statistical level of significance again indicated that it would be relatively safe to assume that the scores represent two populations, rather than one.

The difference between group scores in TABLE 2 was not as important as the total response to the media objectives. Even though the data suggested no conclusions about the quality of instructional coverage, the high percentages for the media analysis objectives implied a convincing statement about the acceptance of media analysis as a relevant skill in English. The two objectives which were scored the lowest by both groups dealt with film. However, one could not conclude that the film objectives are the least relevant. There could be many reasons for these two objectives not being covered by as many schools as the other objectives.

(Note: Regarding the validity of the objectives selected for the follow-up survey, most of the objectives were taken from media objectives cited by English Education experts on media instruction. The objectives are listed in the event the reader wants to investigate the selection.)

CONCLUSIONS

1. The respondents in the follow-up survey indicated that considerably more than six per cent of instructional time was given to media studies. The percentages of media time, the identification of integrated media units, the number of media courses, the high percentage of coverage for the media analysis objectives, and the variety of media course titles suggested a wider acceptance than previously reported.

2. It appeared that most schools with elective programs placed more emphasis on media analysis and media composition than those schools with five or fewer electives. Most schools with more than five electives devoted more than twice the amount of time to media than did the schools with five or fewer electives. However, the More-Than-Five Group covered only a few more of the given media analysis objectives than the Five-or-Fewer Group. Both groups had relatively high scores on the given media objectives. However, the reader should keep in mind that the 20 selected objectives created an artificial ceiling, possibly penalizing the group that scored the highest in this comparison.

Very likely, the elective programs did facilitate a stress on media. However, this should not be interpreted as saying that only elective programs facilitated a stress on media. Other variables such as teacher training, available funds, and school community preferences could easily influence this stress, also. Let the reader guard against any inference that elective programs were judged better than traditional programs. The intent of the comparisons was to instigate the claim of "no differences."

LIMITATIONS OF FOLLOW-UP STUDY

1. The target population in this survey was drawn from the data of the respondents to the DPI survey, rather than all high schools in the State of Indiana.

2. No attempt was made to work with adjusted means for the comparisons of group scores. Many variables related to school enrollment, geographical location, teacher training, attitudes of teachers and administrators, and others were not controlled in this study.

3. As might be the case with most instruments, the survey instrument was a crude device for collecting data.

4. In a survey of this type, the returns could be skewed toward schools with media emphasis.

TABLE 1
A COMPARISON OF TIME DEVOTED TO MEDIA

Programs with Five or Fewer Electives n=13			Programs with More than Five Electives n=28		
Per Cent	g-1	$g-1^2$	Per Cent	g-1	$g-1^2$
200	50	2500	85	67	4489
50	50	2500	67	67	4489
35	35	1225	57	57	3249
18	18	324	55	55	3025
12	12	144	50	50	2500
6	6	36	40	40	1600
5	5	25	30	30	900
5	5	25	30	30	900
5	5	25	30	30	900
4	4	16	29	29	841
2.5	2.5	6.25	26	26	676
1	1	1	25	25	625
1	1	1	24	24	576
			24	24	576
			20	20	400
			20	20	400
			15	15	225
			15	15	225
			15	15	225
			14	14	196
			14	14	196
			10	10	100
			10	10	100
			10	10	100
			10	10	100
			10	10	100
			8	8	64
			3	8	64
344.5	194.5	6828.25	746	733	27841

mean = 14.96
SS = 3918.24
$\frac{SS}{n(n-1)}$ = 25.1169

$s_{\bar{x}}$ = 5.09

mean = 26.17
SS = 8652.2
$\frac{SS}{n(n-1)}$ = 11.4447

$s_{\bar{x}}$ = 3.38

TABLE 2

A COMPARISON OF SELECTED OBJECTIVES OF MEDIA ANALYSIS

Programs with Five or Fewer Electives	Programs with More than Five Electives
n=17	n=31
mean = 15.12	mean = 17.84
SS = 365.77	SS = 260.2
S^2 = 22.86	S^2 = 8.67

s_{dx}=3.78

$t_{obs.}$=2.38, significant at the .025 level for a one-tailed test.
Student's t Tabled Value of $t_{97.5}$ (47,df) is 2.01

RESPONSE TO 20 MEDIA ANALYSIS OBJECTIVES

Respondents checked those objectives which were covered by any one course in their language arts programs.

n = 17	n = 31	n = 48	Objectives:
16 (94%)	31 (100%)	47 (98%)	1. Distinguishing between fact and opinion.
16 (93%)	31 (100%)	47 (98%)	2. Identifying characteristics of bias reporting.
16 (93%)	31 (100%)	47 (98%)	3. Distinguishing between objective and subjective reporting.
13 (77%)	28 (90%)	41 (85%)	4. Writing summaries of news.
15 (88%)	26 (84%)	41 (85%)	5. Comparing different media coverage of the same news.
15 (88%)	31 (100)%	46 (96%)	6. Analyzing persuasion techniques in editorials.
13 (77%)	28 (90%)	41 (85%)	7. Analyzing editorial cartoons in terms of message, point of view, and timeliness.
11 (65%)	25 (81%)	36 (75%)	8. Finding representative samples of balanced editorials.
17 (100%)	29 (94%)	46 (96%)	9. Identifying targets and techniques in propaganda.
15 (88%)	31 (100%)	46 (96%)	10. Interpreting advertisements or commercials in terms of audience targets and needs.
16 (93%)	27 (87%)	43 (90%)	11. Evaluating television programs.

9 (53%)	25 (81%)	34 (71%)	12.	Analyzing the meaning of line, color, shape, and size in pictures.
8 (47%)	22 (71%)	30 (63%)	13.	Analyzing techniques of sequencing and image control in film.
7 (41%)	19 (61%)	26 (54%)	14.	Understanding the developments in the history of film.
14 (82%)	27 (87%)	41 (85%)	15.	Identifying forms of censorship.
11 (65%)	22 (71%)	33 (69%)	16.	Understanding monopolistic developments in newspapers.
9 (53%)	26 (84%)	35 (73%)	17.	Understanding the role of FCC.
11 (65%)	26 (84%)	37 (77%)	18.	Understanding the role of advertisers as consumers of media.
13 (77%)	28 (90%)	41 (85%)	19.	Identifying various roles (social, cultural, political, economical) of mass media.
12 (71%)	31 (100%)	43 (90%)	20.	Identifying values and limitations of the mass media.